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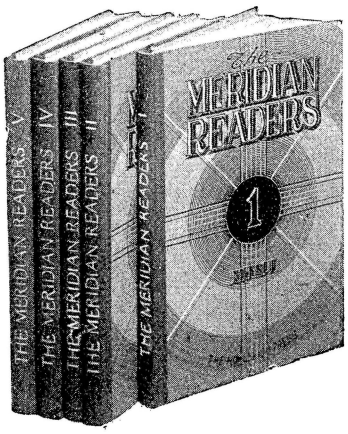

横濱商高 教授 光井武八郎先生著

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1. .72 錢　4. .85 錢
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3. .85 錢

昭和7年11月19日
中學校外國語科 文部省檢定濟

本書の編纂に當りては、『興味と實益』を基調として、其教材を蒐集選擇したのであります。其教材の配列に關しては、先づ第一卷に於ては用語構文の最も平易にして最も日常的のものより始め、英語の慣用語法全般に亘りて最も健實なる基礎的智識を確立することを主眼としました。卷を追ふに從ひ漸次複雜なる文體に進み、第四第五卷に於ては、普通教育の英語としては最も高級な程度に達せしめるやうにいたしました。教材は用語構文の難易程度に從つて漸進的に之を配列すると同時に、其題材は大體その授業豫定の季節に適應し、又前後の章と相關聯して場面の推移展開を最も自然ならしめ、よく學習者の興味を增進する樣に、之を配列したのであります。

本書の編纂につきましては、編者親しく英米兩國に於て數年間に亘り、廣く教材の蒐集に努められ、殊にLondon, Edinburgh や New York 等の諸都市教育當局の特別好意によつて、他の方法では到底集めることの出來ない貴重な資料等を挿入されることの出來たのは、類書の追從を許さぬ所であります。**本書五卷全部を通じて、定不變の系統組織の確立貫通せるものがありまして、**一文一行と雖も本文に關係なき所謂『埋草』的のものが無く、悉くが**皆學習者の血となり、肉となるものゝみを編纂**されてあります。

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最も要領を得たる理想的英文法

著者『はしがき』より:— 煩瑣な分類やあまり必要のない規則、術語などは出來るだけ省きました。從來の文法書に見る樣な秩序的配列をせず、只管教へ易く學び易い樣な順序を採りました。例へば品詞の異つた語でも同時に學んだ方が便利な場合には之を一括して相互の關係を明かにし、時間と勞力の節約をはかりました。中學卒業生の理解力や發表力が不十分なのは主として文章の構造に關する知識の不足に起因するものと思はれますから、此方面に特に意を用ひました。構文を知るには文章の解剖は極めて必要な事であると思ひますが、從來の解剖の仕方は非常に繁雜で、あまり實用的だとは申しかねますので、本書では一つ新しい方法を試みました。これならば長い複雜な文章でも構文が明瞭に分る樣に解剖することが出來るかと自惚れて居ます。

Girls' * * * * English Grammar

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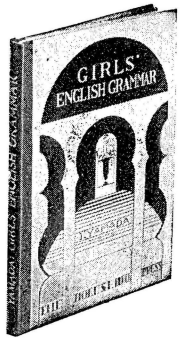

煩瑣な分類やあまり必要のない規則、術語などは出來るだけ省き、女子用英文法教科書として最適ならしめたのが本書であります。

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"Head, Heart, Hands, Health": *Four-H Clubs in the United States*

I pledge my HEAD to clearer thinking, my HEART to greater loyalty, my HANDS to larger service, my HEALTH to better living for my club, my community and my country.

By L. H. ROBBINS

The six rural boys and girls acclaimed in Chicago this month as the healthiest of the year in 4-H Clubs in the United States had given that pledge, as have more than 5,000,000 other young Americans of the farm lands and the villages in the last two decades.

Four-H youngsters agree "to make the best better" and "to grow in wisdom, and in stature, and in favor with God and man," and they carry out these promises so well that sociologists call their organization "one of the most potent influences for good in the nation," and Presidential candidates never fail to toss it bouquets of praise.

Now and then the metropolitan papers make brief mention of boys who take national prizes as breeders of poultry or baby-beef cattle; of girls who excel in baking, preserving or dressmaking, and of boys and girls who win the scholarship of the Department of Agriculture. But the 4-H Clubs, as a rule, are not much heard about in the cities.

They flourish modestly in places remote from the national spotlight; places like Aurelia, Iowa; Aspermont, Texas; Uriah, Ala., and Zumbrola, Minn. They hide away in 60,000 farming communities in this country, Alaska, Hawaii and Puerto Rico. Their membership, though continually changing, remains steady at about 1,000,000, and represents one-twelfth of all the rural young people.

* * *

On a Saturday noon in a Midwestern State a farm truck halts at a country school and takes aboard a cargo of boys and girls between the ages of 10 and 18. Some riding with the driver, some dangling their legs out at the tailboard, the rest seated flat on the floor, they roll away down the prairie road, a ruddy, jolly, chaffing, singing lot. A boys' club and a girls' club have held a joint meeting at the school to plan an exhibit for the country fair, a display of things they have produced this year in their 4-H projects. Follow the truck as it delivers them at their farm homes.

The freckled Johnny Brown, 14, leads you to the barn and proudly shows you the heifer calf he has been raising under the direction of his club leader, a rising young farmer who was a 4-H boy ten years ago. No fortune—earning race horse is ever brought along with fonder care than Johnny's heifer. Her yellow coat is sleek, her bed is soft and neat. Her every meal is weighed and recorded—chart and pencil hang handy above the feed bin. Will she take ribbons at the county cattle show? "Ain't no doubt about it!" says Johnny.

When his project is completed he will write a report of many pages, telling of his work in patient detail. Sometimes it happens that such a boy will discover a new wrinkle in cattle feeding and will be summoned to impart it to veteran cattle men.

A strong point of 4-H work is that it is closely linked with the practical life of the grown-up world around. Other boys of the district are raising heifers in friendly competition with Johnny. The winner will get a trip to the 4-H round-up at the State Agricultural College in company with winners from other counties, where he will hear of the fine things that can be accomplished in farming by those who keep on trying "to make the best better" after they become men. He may even be one of four children of his State to earn an invitation from the government to attend a national encampment at Washington, where agriculture has its great museums and laboratories. He may be enabled to visit Chicago, capital of the nation's food supply, to see its mighty stock yards and granaries, or New York, with its markets, exchanges and shipping. The agricultural departments of the railroads make such excursions possible for the deserving.

* * *

At 14 Johnny has had to stop school; his father farms in an unenlightened way and the family is poor. But the 4-H Club has shown Johnny a vision of the opportunities his environment holds, no matter how unfavorable its conditions may be. And the chances are two in five, a national survey reveals, that he will share his inspiration with his dad and that the father will learn better farming practice from Johnny.

Down the road a piece Wilbur Haskins, 12, has a patch of field corn on which he lavishes the attention a lady rock-gardener gives to her alpines. Out of its yield he will choose twelve perfect ears, their rows of kernels full to the very tassel end, and enter them in a contest against any other dozen ears in the township. Last year his seed corn took second money—$2.50 in trade at a store in the county seat; but Wilbur, being a true 4-H-er, is not satisfied with minor honors.

With equal pains his younger brother and sister are bringing up a flock of White Wyandottes. They know the points that count, how to cull out the less worthy stock, how to feed, water and clean for perfection, and they will know to a cent what their expense has been. They learn the technique from an expert poultryman in the village who gives an hour a week to the 4-H members, letting them visit his plant to see how incubators and brooders are operated and how eggs are tested, graded and packed for the market. They will show a pen of their plump white pets at the fair, groomed to the last toe-nail.

* * *

A million 4-H youngsters are absorbed in voluntary undertakings like those of Johnny, the Haskins children and Susan. Three in four will carry them through to

the end. They will average two and one-half years in club activity. The boy who last year won the gold cup offered by President Roosevelt had a record of nine years of 4-H achievement.

The young people learn by doing. They learn sources of information. They do socially useful things. Early in life they acquire a sense of the community and their part in it; an understanding of the wholesome truth that getting ahead requires getting along with the neighbors and playing the game fairly. And they make money. At 18 a New York boy had earned $3,000 in 4-H prizes, and a Western boy had made his twenty-one projects pay him $5,600.

The boys plant trees—in New York State they have planted more than 7,000,000 since 1926. They grow cotton and potatoes, raise turkeys and pheasants, practice judging at pet shows and cattle shows, gain skill in dairying, farm-shop work and range management. The girls compete with the boys in some of those activities, but go in most for home economics. They bake bread, make their clothing, dress the younger children of the household, delve in home decoration. And all 4-H members learn about budgets. They do their club work in the spare time they can find when school duties and home chores are out of the way.

* * *

Back in 1899 American agriculture was beginning to feel the effects of its old go-as-you-please system. The drift of young people from the farms had set in. Farmers' institutes were poorly attended. At such a meeting in Illinois Will B. Atwill thought to stimulate the interest of youth in farming by offering seed corn to boys and a prize for the best crop. That was the origin of the 4-H movement.

The movement is now a part of the nation's agricultural extension system made possible by the Smith-Lever act of 1914, whose objects were an efficient agriculture, an adequate supply of food and clothing for the nation, an enriched country life and an alert, progressive rural people. From the Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges, encouragement and inspiration go out through the country agricultural agents to the young people's clubs. The clubs report to the county agents, by whom their work is guided. Volunteer leaders to the number of 100,000, men and women of capacity and vision, supplement the work of the county agents. The clubs in turn develop leaders for the succeeding crop of young people.

The club meetings are lively affairs, held in school houses, court houses, private homes or in the open, and conducted usually by the members themselves, with an older person sitting in for counsel. Often there is a talk from a grown-up visitor, perhaps a teacher from the State College, on a subject of moment to young agricultural ambition. The members debate the problems encountered in their projects and exchange wisdom they have picked up.

Public speaking is encouraged as being an essential of future community leadership. A feature of any meeting is a set address by one of the members, in which, as a rule, he reports on work he has done. The clubs get up musical and dramatic entertainments for themselves and their elders, and young talent has its chance to be heard. A 4-H presentation of the opera, "The Bohemian Girl," in Iowa and long ago enlisted juniors from all parts of the State and drew an outdoor audience of 10,000. The clubs often hold picnics, hikes, athletic meets and vacation camps. They bring cheer to many a country district where social life is scarce.

Any young person may join a 4-H Club if there is one in his neighborhood. The clubs are not plentiful enough, however, for the need. A recent government report advocates increasing their number, arguing that appropriations for additional trained leaders would pay, judging by the excellent results obtained in districts already supplied.

* * *

Rural sociologists find that 4-H work tends to raise the ideals and standards of the farm home and the farming community, to build well-managed lives and to make for happier living. Notably, it has lengthened the average period of school training in the farm lands, and it turns thousands of ambitious boys and girls toward college, where they fit themselves to return to the land for fine careers in agriculture.

In messages to the 4-H Clubs Secretary Henry A. Wallace has said: "We are not working to out-compete our fellows but to compete with the best in ourselves." And again, "Individual skill is not enough today. To attain our highest destiny we must also learn to work together. * * * And together we are going to work out an agriculture in this country which will make us all much happier than we have been in the past."

Government authorities say that the clubs of the junior farmers are helping to meet the biggest need of rural life, namely, community cooperation and team-work. The farmers of America, proverbially individualistic since pioneer days, are uniting against their common problems for the first time in history. Praise for the change is given to the rural free delivery, the telephone, the automobile, the radio and, no less, to the 4-H.

The emblem of the clubs is the four-leaf clover with a white "H" on each leaf. It seems to mean good luck to the nation. The Republic of China thinks so, for it has lately borrowed the 4-H idea from us. The Chinese call their clubs "Four-Progress" clubs, since they have no H and, in fact, no alphabet. But they keep the 4-H spirit.

TO THIS MAN GERMANY ENTRUSTS ★ ★ HER DESTINY ★ ★

By OTTO D. TOLISCHUS

BERLIN

The destiny of Germany and the fate of National Socialism rest today in the hands of one man—Hermann Wilhelm Goering, the "Minister-President" of the Third Reich, whom Adolf Hitler has appointed as his plenipotentiary commissar in charge of his second Four-Year Plan.

The first Four-Year Plan of the Hitler régime restored Germany's military power; it "forged the sword" which, according to Hitler's book "Mein Kampf," is the first prerequisite to German world power. The second Four-Year Plan is to provide Germany with the economic armament of wartime self-sufficiency without which the sword alone has proved to be a brittle weapon; but beyond that it is also an attempt, through comparative autarchy in peacetime, to meet the economic consequences of the first Four-Year Plan and its methods.

If the second Four-Year Plan succeeds, Germany will be economically independent and the National Socialist régime will be free to shape her destiny without regard to world opinion. If the plan fails, National Socialism will have to seek relief abroad, to surrender to the "dictate of international capitalism," which demands vital changes in policy and even personnel as the price for aid—or else face the risk of war or revolution.

For National Socialism, therefore, if not for Germany, the second Four-Year Plan is a question of "to be or not to be." It is the weapon behind the new National

(*Continued on page 5*)

Winter in Czecho-Slovak countryside.

That Other Farm Crop—The ★ ★ Human One ★ ★

By O. E. BAKER

Senior Agricultural Economist, United States Department of Agriculture

WASHINGTON.

Many city people may have wondered during recent years why the Federal Government has been attempting, with so much determination, and in so many ways, to improve the lot of the farmers of the nation. Perhaps no other element in our population has had such intensive treatment. Yet the farm population includes only about one-fourth of the total population of the country.

There may be several explanations of the farmer's importance in our national scheme, but there is one which, in my opinion, overshadows the others. It is to the rural regions that we must look for the maintenance and replenishment of our population.

If the respective birth rates in the country and in the city are maintained at their present levels, and migration from the farms is resumed in predepression numbers, more than two-thirds of the nation's population a century hence will be descended from the rural people, and less than one-third from families now living in cities and towns of over 2,500. This assumes no net immigration from foreign lands. If, as during the depression, there should be no farm-to-city migration, the descendants of the rural people of today would be five times as numerous a century from now as the descendants of city people.

In promoting the welfare of the farmer, therefore, and in making life on the land more attractive, the government is dealing not only with today's minority—it is dealing also with tomorrow's overwhelming majority.

* * *

So far as the student of population trends can see, always provided that restrictions on foreign immigration are not relaxed, there is no escape from the evils of a declining population, beginning perhaps as early as 1950, unless the drift from the country to congested urban areas, arrested in 1930, should be permanently halted. Ten adults in our large cities are now raising only about seven children. Should present birth rates persist, these seven will have only five children and the five only three and one-half. If there were no migration between city and country or from abroad, New York City in three generations, or a century, would have only about one-third the people it has today. A typical farming community, on the other hand, would have double its present number.

The history of the United States, like that of other countries which have been rapidly industrialized, shows that industry and urbanism are inclined to go hand in hand, and that when combined they persistently reduce the birth rate. If food could be produced in laboratories, so that a nation could be entirely urban, that nation, given the present birth rates, would almost disappear within ten generations. It would probably revert, in a much shorter time, to a simple rural life, possibly to semi-barbarism, because its economic and political structure would tend to fall to pieces.

On a less catastrophic scale a declining population, which we shall certainly have to face within a generation if the birth rates continue to drop, means a relative increase in the number of the aged and a decrease in the number of the young, and, later, of the productive middle aged. Since there would be relatively fewer and fewer producers after a couple of decades, a rise in the cost of living or a decline in the standard of living would probably set in, particularly if technical progress is retarded, as seems possible.

America has time to take remedial measures. The number of births reached its peak in 1921, when about 3,000,000 babies were born, and held to nearly the same level until 1924. Our most numerous age group, therefore, is now between 12 and 15 years of age, and will be at the height of its productive powers, economically, in from fifteen to twenty-five years. So far as the age composition of the population is influential, the next quarter century should be years of exceptional prosperity, particularly for the building industry. But there are being born at present only about 2,300,000 babies a year, and the trend is downward. In a quarter or a third of a century the need for additional housing will end, and there will be twice as many people over 65 as at present.

The human crop is failing. It is failing in large part because under urban conditions a child is an economic liability, not an asset, and because—except during the depression years—an increasing percentage of our people live in cities.

This decline in birth rate, which has grown more noticeable in recent years and has been accentuated by the virtual end of immigration, has been going on for more than a century. At the time of the first census, in 1790, the United States was about 75 per cent rural. Until the Civil War population doubled every quarter century. Immigration was insignificant during most of this period. If this rate of increase had been maintained, our population today would be over 250,000,000, as President Lincoln forecast.

But even before the Civil War influences were at work to draw farm youth to the cities, and after the Civil War migration was rapid. Progress in industrial technique centered around the steam engine, and the steam engine, unlike the hand loom or the wood-carver's tools, could not be taken into the home.

In industry workers had to go where the power was, and the power was either set up in communities already urban or it created cities around it. Progress in the technique of agriculture was not so rapid, but it did enable one farm worker in 1930 to produce about as much as three farm workers in 1830. The land was able, therefore, to spare recruits to industry.

Two worlds grew up—the world of the commercial farm and the small town, and the world of the city and the factory. They intermixed along their boundaries, yet in ways of thinking and living they radically differed.

* * *

In recent years we have seen a break-down of farm isolation. Good roads and the automobile bring the farmer to town easily. The telephone enables him to converse with his neighbors, to order supplies, to call the doctor. By means of the radio he can hear music, political speeches and lectures. He is usually within reach of a motion-picture theatre, and through that medium he has a wider, though often distorted, vision of the world.

Many farmers, moreover, have conveniences undreamed of a century ago—modern plumbing, electricity, central heating. Farm machinery has been improved to a point where the typical farmer is a capable mechanic, not the "hayseed" of the nineteenth century comics. Farm practice has been influenced by the experiment stations, the colleges, the county agents, the radio and the agricultural press. The management of a commercial farm is as intricate an operation as the management of a factory, and involves a greater knowledge of science.

Unfortunately there are large areas where these conveniences and machinery and knowledge of science are mostly lacking. Only a sixth of our farmers now have electricity and plumbing, only a third have radios and telephones, only two-thirds have automobiles. There is a wide opportunity for further advance, through such agencies as the Rural Electrification Administration, before the farm catches up with the city in the use of home conveniences.

The difference between farm and city, however, is not wholly a matter of technique. It is not only that the farmer has been slower than his city neighbor in adopting modern ways of living; he has a different notion of the good life, a different set of values. Even today, despite the changes in rural life, the city man who goes to live and work in the country is aware that he has passed from one culture to another.

* * *

One divergence springs from the fact that in the city a man's status, and particularly that of his wife, is largely determined by competitive consumption. In the country a person is more likely to be judged by what he or she produces than by what he or she is able to consume. Rural ideals are expressed in the terms "master farmer" or "homemaker." The family is a stronger institution in the country, where it is concerned with both production and consumption, than in the city, where it is almost wholly concerned with consumption.

These differences in life and labor lead to differences in standards of conduct. It is not necessary to go into the ethics of these standards—the important thing is that they are real.

They make the farmers and their wives thrifty, while many city people tend to be spendthrifts. They make the family the economic unit on the land, whereas in the cities the unit is the individual. They make it natural for the farmer to welcome children, in part because the children can help with the farm work with benefit to their health

and character. They make the farm population the most stable element in the nation, normally the producers of capital and the respecters of capital; and this capital, acquired through many years of hard work and thrift by both the farmers and their wives, they hope to pass on to their children.

More and more, however, the farmer's position has become difficult, sometimes precarious. For nearly two generations he has been losing his hold on the land. The equity (value of property in excess of debt) farms owned by farmers constituted in 1880 about 62 per cent of the total value of all farm real estate. The figures for succeeding census years are 59, 54, 50 and 46 per cent. In 1930 it was only 41.6 per cent; and now it is about 40 per cent. In Illinois, Iowa and South Dakota only about one-fourth of the farm real estate, measured by value and allowing for mortgage debt is now owned by the men who farm it.

Migration to the cities has transferred enormous wealth from the farm. During the decade 1920 to 1930 about 6,300,000 people, mostly young, moved from the farms to the cities. This migration was inevitable. Nevertheless, these children, fed, clothed and, in general, educated at the expense of the farmers and their wives, were supplied practically free of cost to the cities. If $2, 50 be allowed as the cost of feeding, clothing and educating the average farm child until the age of 15, the cost involved in providing these 6,300,000 migrants to the cities exceeded $14,000,000,000.

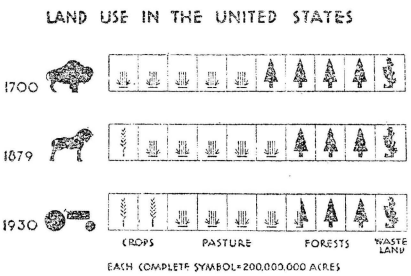
When a farmer and his wife die the children who have moved to the cities take their share of the estate. This has increased the mortgage debt on farm land. Including with these items the rents and interest on debts paid to non-farm people, much of which was the result of migration, farm people transferred to urban people between 1920 and 1930 the equivalent of about $35,000,000,000. This is nearly one-third of the total gross agricultural income in the decade.

Millions of farmers, nevertheless, have clung to the soil, some because they have managed to make a good living in spite of all obstacles, some because they are too old to move or see no other opportunities, some because they like the life. But farming is not and has not been in a healthy condition. Not only have hundreds of millions of acres of soil lost fertility by wasteful methods of cultivation, but also the human stock, on which the nation depends to replenish and revivify its population, has been depleted rapidly. * * *

The depression and unemployment brought a new element into the situation. The 1935 census returns revealed that on Japan. 1 of that year nearly 2,000,000 people were living on farms who were not on farms five years before. Moreover, there had been a backing up on the land of probably over 1,500,000 young people who in normal times would have migrated to the cities. Half a million additional farms came into operation, and the average production per farmer dropped 20 per cent, reversing the trend of a century. About half of this reduction, however, was owing to drought.

What these figures mean is that many farms have been subdivided, that abandoned farms have been reoccupied and submarginal land cultivated on a subsistence basis, and that young people are working for their keep on parental acres, adding little or nothing to agricultural production.

Clearly the problem of maintaining the farm population as a permanent source of labor for the cities has not been solved by the depression. The farms have been little more than a refuge from the relief rolls. The poorer lands and poorer farmers, not the richer, have absorbed most of the flow from the cities. As employment in urban industry and commerce expands there will again be an urban market for the labor of many farm boys and girls, and owing to the progressive loss of land ownership and lower



standards of living, there may be fewer attractions to hold them on the land.

The agricultural problem is a national problem, and its solution requires a long look into the future. Let us consider briefly three possibilities:

The first is a further concentration of population, wealth and power in the cities. This would hasten the decline in the population of the nation and in the demand for farm products. Fewer rural people, fewer children—thus a descending spiral in population would be engendered. It is conceivable that such urbanization may be associated with increasing dependence upon the State—with a drift toward socialism—and it has been suggested that if the State would compensate parents for the cost of rearing children even as it now bears most of the cost of their education, the birth rate would rise sufficiently to keep the population permanently stationary.

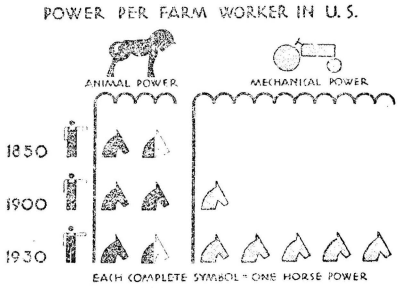
It might; but the question arises, would a strong enough motive remain for having children? Unquestionably the family as an institution would be weaker. Governments cannot compel nor cajole people to reproduce, if the conditions of their lives and the prevalent social ideals weaken the unity of the family and make children appear to be a burden. * * *

The second possibility is a return to agrarianism. This would mean that millions of young people must remain on the land, not as necessary factors in food production but to live largely on a self-sufficing basis in a simple village economy, as in pre-industrial days. It would mean a lower standard of living, at least with reference to luxuries, in return for the greater security and other advantages of rural life.

The third possibility, which has been given the name of "rurbanism," is an attempt to combine the advantages of urban and rural life. Such "rurbanism" has existed in Southern New England for a century; its early monuments may be seen in comfortable old farm and village houses, better than most of those which have been built in recent years. Those houses were not the product of agriculture alone.

New England in those days had many small household industries and even small factories—rug-making, metal-working, wood-working and many specialties—which gave the farmer an income for work done during his spare time and provided, and still provide, full-time employment for some of his children. Even a century ago this income must have been considerable, and the aggregate that has accumulated during the century accounts in large part for the present wealth of New England. Despite a relatively poor soil and practically no mineral deposits, the proportion of the rural population in New England on relief in 1933 was less than half that in the United States as a whole, and in many rural New England towns there is not a person receiving Federal relief.

Electricity permits many kinds of small manufactures in the rural community, without sacrifice of efficiency and at lower labor costs than in the cities. Leaders of industry may well consider the population prospect and its economic and political implications. The most productive half of our farmers in 1929 produced nearly 90 per cent of the farm products "sold or traded," to use the census phrase. The other half, each of whom produced less than $1,000 of products, need, in general, supplementary employment, and many of their children need full-time work. If they go to the cities, the decline in the



nation's population after a while will be rapid. In rural New England the birth rate remained stationary for a third of a century, up to 1930, at least. This is practically the only section of the nation that did not show a notable decline.

Such a "rurban" development may not be possible the country over. But it probably would be feasible in much of the "manufacturing belt," an area bounded by lines drawn from New York City to Baltimore, Louisville, St. Louis. St. Paul, Duluth, and then eastward across Ontario and Quebec. An arm of "rurban" culture might extend down the Piedmont and the Appalachians into Georgia. "Rurban" islands exist at present in certain Pacific Coast valleys, and these areas might expand.

The spread of "rurbanism" to the extent described is possible without drastic changes in our economic or political system. But there appears to be no final solution to the modern Occidental population problem except through the spirit of sacrifice—of parents for the sake of children, of the individual for the sake of the nation, and of the present for the sake of the future.

—The New York Times Magazine, Oct. 25, 1936.

(*Continued from page 2*)

Socialist battle-cry, "We won't capitulate!" so frequently heard today. Because the plan is so fundamental to the existence of his régime, Hitler put in charge of it not an economic expert but the best man at his command, whom he has always thrown into the breach in a crisis and who alone seems capable of whipping the entire nation into line—the one man of Caesarian caliber in the National Socialist ranks, the "iron man" of Nazidom, his most loyal paladin, Goering, whom he has raised above all other men in the Reich, second only to himself, and on whom he has bestowed powers without precedent in governmental history.

At 43 years of age, after a romantic career of ups and downs more bizarre than ever pictured in tales of adventure, Goering thus finds himself to be one of the most powerful men on earth, holding more titles, honors and offices than any of the others. He is, besides being "Commissar for the Four-Year Plan," also Minister-President of Prussia, Reich Aviation Minister, Colonel General of the Fliers and Commander-in-Chief of the German Air Forces, General of Infantry, General of the Prussian State Police, President of the Reichstag, President of the Prussian State Council, Reich Forest Master and Master of the Hunt, titular chief of the Prussian Gestapo and Group Leader of the Storm Troops, who are also a State institution.

That is the outside façade, but behind it what manner of man is this new German Caesar and what meat does he feed on?

* * *

Goering is in many respects the very opposite of Hitler. Both have the same pertinacity and strength of will, but there the similarity ends.

Hitler is a fanatical devotee of his own idea and, therefore, somewhat one-sided; he is a self-made man, simple in tastes and rather shy in personal contacts, something of an ascetic.

Goering, born of a family of higher government officials and officers and reared as a Prussian officer himself, partakes of the qualities that Germans summarize in the word "Herr." He is devotee of the dangerous but also of the abundant life; he is a Realpolitiker, as Machiavellian as any, but he is also a romanticist, complex, sometimes Quixotic, but never one-sided. He was a famous war ace in his early twenties; he became a revolutionary and an adventurer in the troubled post-war period; he is now soldier and statesman, orator, organizer and diplomat, connoisseur and patron of the arts, as well as sportsman.

* * *

Like Mussolini, he loves the grandezza that the ruled subconsciously expect of their rulers, and he consciously cultivates it for the popularity it brings him. He is famous for his many uniforms, his imperious manner and his regal style of living, and he sports lion cubs as his playmates. He is colorful, temperamental, sometimes theatrical, a trifle vain perhaps, but he is also one National Socialist with a self-assured sense of humor and is the first to laugh with gusto at the innumerable anecdotes circulated at his expense; he is their most diligent collector.

Above everything else, however, he is the man of action, with a dangerous streak of violence in him. The ruthlessness of the World War, in which he finished off some twenty-odd opponents in personal combat in the air, still clings to him.

If Hitler is the prophet of National Socialism, then Goering is his chief executor. They complement each other, and that is perhaps the strongest tie between them. Personally and socially Hitler seems to be closer to Dr. Paul Joseph Goebbels, the Propaganda Minister, but while Hitler is his own best propagandist Goering is the better executive. One needs the other and their loyalty to each other has been sealed in blood.

Goering was born on Jan. 12, 1893, in Rosenheim, in Upper Bavaria, and is thus four years younger than Hitler. His family

was well off and owned several estates. His father, Dr. H. E. Goering, fought as an officer in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71, and was later the first "Minister-resident" in the German colony of Southwest Africa under Bismarck. One of his ancestors was something like an "economic dictator" of a large district under Frederick the Great and earned the praise of his sovereign.

But the Goerings seem to have had turbulent blood in them. Dr. Goering got into a row with Bismarck's successor and went into foreign colonial service. Hermann, who first attended the Gymnasiums of Fuerth and Ansbach and then the officers' cadet school at Karlsruhe and Berlin-Lichterfelde, was from the beginning, in the words of his military instructor, "a fine chap, but difficult, a born revolutionary." All his life he has been impatient of restraint and has always "widened" his orders and instructions to suit his own ideas.

He was 21 and a lieutenant in the infantry when the war broke out and immediately proceeded to give himself his own orders. He "widened" his specific instructions in his first contact with the enemy and dashed ahead. He tried to kidnap the French commander of Muehlhausen right out of the midst of his staff, and it is a wonder that he lived to tell the tale.

Inevitably he felt attracted to the new air arm, and when rheumatism of the joints sent him to a hospital he transferred himself to the aviation corps on his own authority and "kidnapped" his own machine, in which he wanted to serve as observer. He skipped a three-day sentence in the guard house, imposed on him for this feat, and went A. W. O. L. toward the front, where he broke all rules, but soon won his iron cross, first class, nonetheless.

* * *

In February, 1915, when airplanes were still unarmed, Goering won his first official air victory, which is also credited with being the first air victory of the World War. A French bombing squadron raided the headquarters of the German Crown Prince at Stenay during a visit of the Crown Princess. Goering seized a twenty-five-shot Mauser rifle and started out with his machine to chase the squadron single-handed. He emptied his rifle and one of the French planes was seen to detach itself from the formation, although it reached its lines in a glide. This gave him an idea; he mounted a machine-gun on the wing and produced the first armed German war plane.

Other and more expert inventors had had the same idea, and soon flying turned from brave escapades into the grim business of almost daily contests in the air in which one lost, as a rule, only once. Goering, having become a pursuit flier—or, as the Germans say, a "hunting flier"—also lost but lived. A dozen British planes once took him by surprise; his machine was hit sixty times, his benzine tank riddled, his motor shot to pieces, and he himself severely wounded in the leg and right hip; but he managed to escape and landed right next to a German hospital where he could be put on the operating table a few minutes afterward.

Soon he was back on duty as leader of a "hunting squadron" whose black-and-white checker marks became a familiar sight over the allied lines. After his twentieth air victory the Kaiser bestowed on him the Pour le Mérite Medal, the highest decoration in the Prussian Army.

In June, 1918, Goering became commander of the Richthofen squadron, whose famous leader had just been killed and whose first successor had crashed in a new plane which Goering had flown just before him. With this squadron he took part in the last desperate struggles of the German armies, opposing allied superiority in numbers with greater frequency of attack, until his unit was reduced from fifty to eleven planes. He refused to surrender these after the armistice; defying orders, he flew them back home, where the Allies got them later.

* * *

After such nerve-tingling experiences, peace would have been in any case a problem to this war veteran of 26; but the peace he did find roused the last drop of his rebellious blood. He defied the revolutionary soldiers' council that welcomed him home; he called on his officers and met at the farewell assembly to resume the fight at home; he flaunted his uniform and decorations in the faces of the revolutionaries, and when, at a meeting of former officers in Berlin, the chair-

The Chinese Take To The Air

By ANTHONY BILLINGHAM
SHANGHAI

Winging its way swiftly southward the great twin-motored Douglas passenger plane begins to lose altitude for its landing at Nanking. The huge silver-colored ship is en route from Chungking, head of navigation on the Yangtse River, to Shanghai, the great foreign-controlled city on the China coast, and its schedule permits only a two-minute pause at the capital of China.

Below, spread in a panorama of green mountains and yellow rice paddies, is one of the most difficult countries in the world in which to travel. Roads are few. Muddy rivers and gray lakes reflect the bright afternoon sun and toy junks lean in the wind like paper boats pasted on strips of golden water. As the plane nears the earth it can be seen that the peasants working in the wet fields pause in their labors to watch it fly overhead, while the ponderous water buffaloes hitched to their ancient plows nuzzle the green rice with bamboo-caged noses.

Nanking, an ancient walled city with a modern varnish, flashes by below, foreign-style houses set strangely among old Chinese temples and towers. The plane banks twice, permitting some coolie grass cutters to run to safety, and then settles in over the stout city wall to a landing.

Planes are no longer a novelty in China, yet crowds of spectators are usually on hand to observe arrivals and departures. Before the establishment of the Chinese airways even moderately long trips consumed several weeks and friends and relatives of the voyager gathered to see him off. Just because it is now only four hours by air from Hankow to Shanghai, instead of four days by river steamer, is not sufficient reason to a Chinese for abolishing a fine old custom.

This day at Nanking the door on the plane is barely opened before a gray-bearded Chinese gentleman hurries in nervously. Behind him, trooping up the aisle, come his family—wife, his married son and daughter-in-law and two grandchildren.

It is obvious that the old gentleman is about to make his first trip by air. He sits quietly as the ship makes the run for the take-off. It gathers speed and the wheels bounce a bit over the rough stubble of the field. Suddenly, leaving the ground, it begins to climb smoothly.

As the voyage progresses smoothly he at last looks out smilingly to see the valleys of Central China spread before him. The peaks of the sun-dappled mountains, which he knew well from the ground, appear close at hand. Reaching inside his girdle, he withdraws a small silken bag and from it extracts a carved jade snuff bottle. He inhales deeply from the tiny silver spoon, and relaxes into the soft cushioned seat with pleasure.

Chinese, like that old gentleman, are largely responsible for the success of commercial flying in China. Chinese are peculiarly modern-minded in some ways. Little more than ten years ago a train journey was an adventure to that old man and his like. And much less than ten years ago the old fellow probably experienced his first ride in an automobile.

There are many reasons for the success of commercial flying in China other than the mere pleasure derived from soaring above the clouds. Aside from the usual benefits, there are two vitally important considerations. For the official, the clouds hold no assassins, while for the wealthy there are no kidnappers.

Flying relieves both groups of a dreadful and ever-present fear. This is largely responsible for another of those singular contradictions of the East; aviation was an established enterprise in China before the building of roads was more than well under way.

China has now three aviation companies connecting about fifty of the largest cities, doing a surprisingly large business. Almost every province in the country has been opened up by air routes until it is now possible to travel from Shanghai, on the coast, to the far hinterlands of Szechuan, Yunnan, Shensi and even to the borders of Sinkiang.

In the establishment of commercial airways China has received more assistance from the United States than from all the other countries put together. The China National Aviation Corporation is 45 per cent Pan-American owned. The other 55 per cent is in the hands of the Chinese Ministry of Communications. This concern has done a prodigious amount of preliminary work, and now operates three lines with great success. It is the largest and most important company of its kind in China.

This Chino-American enterprise is operated precisely as are Pan-American systems. It trains its own radio operators, builds its own radios and runs forty radio weather stations. A radio direction finder is operated at Shanghai. The company is now busily installing direction finders at all way stations and putting homing devices on all planes.

In Manchukuo the Japanese have also made aviation history. Since the Mukden incident of September, 1931, a close network of commercial lines has been established over the entire country. The main line begins at the southern port of Dairen and goes north and westward with stops at Mukden, Hsinking, Harbin, Tsitsihar and Hailar, ending at Manchouli on the Siberian border. There are also feeder lines to the west into Jehol and to Shankaikwan on the Manchukuo-Chinese border, while other lines operate eastward to Manchukuo's Korean and Siberian borders.

* * *

Daily twelve-hour flights are now made from Hsinkiang, capital of Manchukuo, to Tokio, and the price of the trip, like everything in Japan, is extremely moderate. It costs 277 yen, or less than $85 in American money.

Japan has played a singular rôle in the development of aviation in China. The United States and Great Britain were frustrated for years in their endeavors to make air-service connections in China because the Chinese Government knew that Japan would demand privileges at least as wide as those any other nation received.

Japan, however, is directly responsible for the interest in aviation which began to sweep China a little more than four years ago. Before the Shanghai incident China was, to say the least, not air-minded. But five tragic weeks of aerial bombardments of Shanghai were sufficient demonstration to even the most uninterested Chinese of the possibilities of the airplane both for war and for peace. Since that time interest has been profound and is still growing.

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man himself requested him to avoid such provocation to the ruling Reds, he shoved the chairman aside and made a defiant speech which brought him cheers but nothing else.

Compelled to make a living and unable to find a job in the new Germany, he became a professional flier, first in Denmark, then in Sweden.

A forced landing in the latter country brought him down in snow and ice near Castle Rockelstad, where, as in old romances, there lived a pretty maiden yclept Baroness Karin von Fock, sister-in-law of the castle owner. Goering married her and they lived in great devotion to each other until she died in 1931. On her deathbed she pledged Goering to be ever loyal to Hitler, and Goering, come to power, brought her body from Sweden and buried it with state funeral rites in the Schorfheide, the hunting grounds of the Prussian Premiers, erecting a shrine named "Karinhall" in her memory.

In April, 1935, he married, amid elaborate ceremonies that amounted to a "state wedding," Frau Emmy Sonnemann, his present wife, whom he had appointed to the title of a State Actress in the Prussian State Theatres under his domain.

—The New York Times Magazine, Dec. 13, 1936

(To be continued)

The Parliamentary Monocle Gains Friends

By CLAIR PRICE
LONDON

As the wearer of the best-known monocle in the House of Commons, Sir Austen Chamberlain seems to have more followers today than he has had for many years past. More than a score of M. P.'s now wear the single eyeglass. Most of them wear it on a string, as Sir Austen himself does and as his father, the greatest of the Chamberlains, did before him. But there are a few experts among them who rely on muscular contraction alone to avert disaster.

It may be that none of them is expert enough to flip his monocle into the air like a coin and catch it in his eye as its falls, as the Piccadilly Johnnies of an earlier day were supposed to do. Nowadays nobody seems to find time to cultivate this superlative degree of expertness, or at least nobody allows himself to be credited with it. The last remembered instance of it was during the war, and then in Egypt instead of Piccadilly.

On that occasion it had the effect of striking awe into a company of somewhat unruly Australians. That had just been attached to the command of an English officer who wore a monocle. It was the first monocle they had seen in real life, for they

had never been in England and monocles have never seemed to flourish in the dominions. The entire company rose to the occasion as one man. On their first morning in camp they caricatured their new commanding officer by appearing on parade with the lids of their blacking tins solemnly struck into their left eyes.

The Englishman took a long and silent look at them. Then he flipped his monocle into the air and deftly caught it in his eye.

"Do that, you blighters!" he barked at them, and turned on his heel and walked away.

Nowadays monocles seem hardly capable of rising to such heroic heights. Their new popularity in the House of Commons may at first seem to indicate that the tone of the House is becoming more distinctive than it used to be, but on second thought it may just as easily indicate that monocles are becoming less distinctive. If they have lost their old terrors, they seem also to have lost the air of foppishness which one made them the emblem of the intellectual featherweight.

Why they should ever have been regarded as such an emblem must remain a mystery. Perhaps it was because the single glass sometimes impedes movement of the eyelids and so produces the effect of a fixed stare out of one eye. Or perhaps it was because of the startling effect of lifting an eyebrow and so dropping the glass to the end of its string, where it tinkles about the front of the waistcoat until it is retrieved and slipped into its case.

Whatever the reason, it can hardly be doubted that monocles alone, of all the known correctives of defective vision, have utterly failed to capture the affection and esteem of the human race. People take kindly enough to ordinary spectacles.

Even that very haughty arrangement for women, the lorgnette, arouses no actual animosity, although it is by far the most offensive of all the aids to vision. Compared to the hostile stare of a lifted lorgnette, a monocle is surely modest and inoffensive enough.

Even now monocles seem to convey a faint and far-away echo of Lottie Collins pulverizing the Town with "Ta-ra-ra Boom-de-ay"—a glimpse of dukes and marquesses and earls (with here and there a maharajah) all lined up in the correct order of precedence and waiting like perfect little gentlemen, with armfuls of orchids and pearls, outside the stage-door of the old Gaiety.

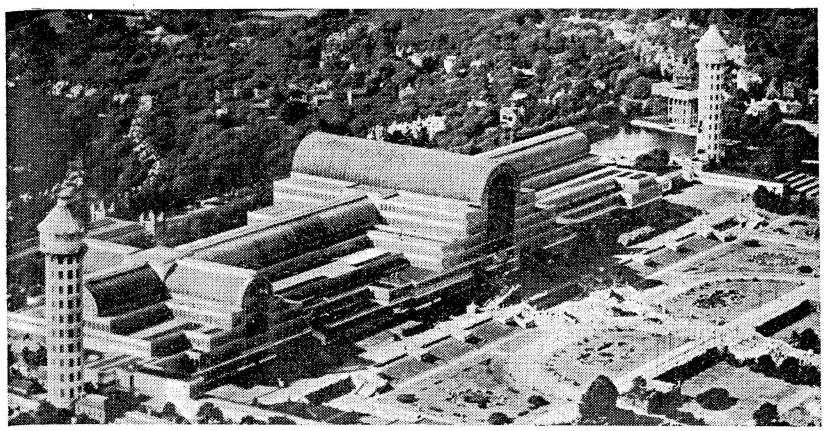
All through their history they have been associated with a type which, in literature, begins with Sir Andrew Aguecheek and descends through the great Dundreary to the heroes of P. G. Wodehouse. A manner, rather than a fixed character, hovers about them—a lisp, a stutter, a crowing chuckle, a little trip in the walk, and a general foppishness and fatuousness. On the stage, at least, they belong to the comic Englishman, and it is on the stage that for the most part they have survived.

The comic Englishman and his comic monocle will presumably continue to flourish on the stage, but in real life the only monocle that survives today is the parliamentary monocle. This is a far more serious institution. It is worn by older men and in an atmosphere of dignity and solemnity rather than of orchids and pearls.

The late Piccadilly monocle and the present parliamentary monocle have indeed this much in common—that both are associated with men who dress well. As far as this present generation is concerned, the senior Chamberlain may be regarded as the father of the parliamentary monocle. His eldest son, Sir Austen, has inherited not only the monocle and the orchid but also the Chamberlain frock coat, which has the remarkable property of making its wearer look as if he had been carefully poured into it.

Faultless dress, and no more, the monocles of Piccadilly and of Parliament have in common. Now that the one has disappeared from real life and the other seems to have gained more devotees than ever, it may be that the time will eventually come when monocles will exchange their comic past for a future of dignity and even esteem.

THE BURNING OF THE CRYSTAL PALACE



The Crystal Palace, whose destruction by fire was recently reported, held a long record of service to the public as a home of instruction and popular entertainment and, consequently, occupied a position which it will be hard to fill. How catholic that entertainment was!—ranging from great musical festivals to dog-shows, circuses, and Brock's Firework Displays. And, for a while, the Imperial War Museum was housed there. Royalty always took an interest in the building; and Queen Mary has already travelled slowly along the Parade by car, so that she could view the damage. Designed by Sir Joseph Paxton to house the Great Exhibition in Hyde Park in 1851, the Crystal Palace was in danger of destruction when the Exhibition closed, but a company was formed to acquire it and it was transferred to Sydenham. The vast structure of glass and iron, covering 25 acres, was enlarged and redecorated and, in 1854, was opened by Queen Victoria and the Prince Consort. The two Towers were a new feature at this time. Rising 282 feet high, each contained a tank capable of holding over 357,000 gallons of water, to supply the jets of the great fountains. In 1861 Blondin walked a tightrope stretched between these towers, pushing a wheelbarrow before him; and lately the South Tower has been used for television experiments. From the date of the opening, the Palace became a place of pleasure for visitors from all parts, for it provided entertainment to suit all tastes. The Palace was probably the first enterprise to cater for the general public's appreciation of music, and in 1857 held a Handel Festival on his centenary (the first of the subsequent Handel Festivals there) which attracted music-lovers from all over the world. In 1860 the first band festival took place, the forerunner of the annual brass band contests which encouraged so much keenness and competition. The Saturday concerts and the great organ, which now lies under the wreckage, were other features which regularly drew a large audience to the Crystal Palace. In 1909 a receiver in bankruptcy was appointed and it was feared that the Palace and the grounds of 200 acres would be destroyed and built over. Fortunately, in 1911, the Earl of Plymouth made himself responsible for the purchase-money, but it was not until 1913 that the public had subscribed the sum needed and the Palace became the property of the nation. The Festival of Empire was staged there in 1913, and then, during the war, it was taken over by the Admiralty to be used as a training "ship" for the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve and was known as H.M.S. "Victory VI.," or, more affectionately, as H.M.S. "Crystal Palace." In those four years of war 125,000 men passed through. The Palace was once again reopened to the public in 1920, after extensive redecoration and repair, and it housed the Imperial War Museum until 1923. In later years the Palace continued as a very popular resort, staging shows. festivals, and exhibitions. It was only last year that further restorations were completed, bringing the total cost to about £300,000, and the Duke of Kent, who hurried to the scene of the fire and discussed the position with the firemen, inspected the sculptures and works of art. Between 1894 and 1914 the Cup Final was played at the Palace and the Corinthian Football Club still uses the ground. Amongst other attractions were a maze, a speedway, and a boating-lake, while, since the disaster, the first sod of a two-miles road-racing circuit has been cut in the grounds, and is expected to be ready by March. The Trustees have appointed a committee of twelve to consider and report on the future of the Crystal Palace.

—*The Illustrated London News.*

【註】

[Four-H Clubs in the United States]

to grow ... in favor with God and man. 神と人との覚え愈々めでたく成長する。

Presidential candidates never fail ..... 大統領候補者は必らず之に賞讃の花束を投與へることを忘れはしない。

in places remote from the national spotlight. 國家的脚光から程遠い所に(一般からあまり目立たぬ地に)。

heifer calf. まだ仔を持たぬ若い牛。

fortune-earning race horse. 莫大な賞金を稼ぐ競馬馬。

"Aint no doubt about it!"="There is no doubt about it!"

a new wrinkle in cattle feeding. 家畜養育法に於ける新しい思付。(let me put you up to a wrinkle=巧いことを一つ教へて上げやう)。

And the chances are two in five... 息子が新しき感激を父と共にし、そして父が新耕作方法を學ばうとするのが五人中二人位ある、位い意。

Wyandotte. 米國産鶏の一品種。

the points that counts. (養鶏法の)重要な點。

groomed to the last toe-nail. 最後の蹄爪にまで手入の届いた、groom は元來馬の手入れをすることを云ふ。

acquire a sense of community and their part in it. 社會と云ふもの及び社會に於ける彼等の立場を感得することに至る、位の意。

getting ahead requires getting along with..... 立身出世するには隣人と協調し且つ正公なる行動をしなければならぬ。

chore (tʃɔ:) 米語 (英語では char, chare) 小仕事、雑役。

set address. 豫め準備しておいた演説のこと。

Henry A. Wallace. 現米國農務長官。

[Germany Entrusts Her Destiny]

plenipotentiary commissar. 全權代表者。(cf. ambassdor extraordinary and plenipotentiary 特命全權大使)。

autarchy. 自給自足。元來はギリシヤ語で self-sufficiency に該る今の流行語である。

a question of "to be or not to be" 死活の問題。to be or not to be は Shakespeare の戯曲 Hamlet 中の文句。

has thrown into the breach in a crisis 常に難局打破の地位に立たしめた。(cf. to stand in the breach 難局に立つ、to step into the breach 救ひに來る)。

whipping the entire nation into line 全國民を鞭打つて統制に服せしめる。

grandezza 〔伊〕= greatness.

sports lion cubs as his playmates ライオンの仔を遊び相手として戯れる。

colorful, temperamental, sometimes theatrical, a trifle vain perhaps. 華かでお天氣的で且つ、時には芝居氣の多い、多分いくらか見え坊であらう。

finished off. 片付けた、やつつけた。

their loyalty to each other has been sealed in blood. 彼等互ひの忠誠關係は血で結ばれた間柄である。

skipped a three-day sentence in the guard house. 營倉三日拘留の罰をズラかつた。

A.W.O.L.=absent without official leave 即ち正式の許可なくして休暇をとつて。

one lost, as a rule, only once. (空中戰で)敗れゝば大抵の場合はそれ一度限りだ(命は助からぬ、との意)。

peace would have been in any case a problem to. 平和と云ふものはどんな場合にだつて ... にとつては問題であつたらう。〔平和だと云つてぢつとして居れぬ、との意)。

the revolutionary soldiers. 革命兵と云つたのは、獨逸は大戰終了と共に共和國となつたからである。

[The Chinese Take to the Air]

begins to lose altitude for its landing. 着陸する爲次第に高度を減じ始めた。

Chungking. 重慶。

Yangtse River. 揚子江。

rice paddies. 稻田。

are usually on hand. 大抵は現場に居る。

trooping up the aisle. 兩翼の隊形を爲して、(aisle は寺院の側廊を云ふ)。

the ship makes the run for the take-off 飛行機が飛翔の爲の滑走を始める。

sun-dappled mountains. 日に照り映へた山々。

Szechuan, 四川 **Yunnan,** 雲南 **Shenshi,** 陝西 **Sinkiang,** 新疆。

direction finder. (航空用語)方向探知器。

homing devices. 出發點の方向を針が示すような裝置。

[The Parliamentary Monocle]

the tone of the House is becoming more distinctive. 議會内の調子は愈々際立つてきた、(モノクルが何んとなく威張つて見えるから、議會もそれに乘じて大分威勢を張つて來た、との意)。

on second thought. 更に考へ直して見れば。

lorgnette 〔佛〕(lorgət) 長い柄があつて手に持つて見る眼鏡。

fixed character. 嚴然たる態度、位の意。

a little trip in the walk. 身輕にチヨコチヨコ歩く樣。

as if he had been carefully poured into it. 宛も注意深くそれに流し込まれた如く、(キチッとした樣子を云ふ)。

編輯室から

何だかあはたゞしい、急迫と重壓を感じさせる時勢である。稍もすれば混迷か興奮を感じさせられ勝ちな時勢である。此の如き時に當つて心懸くべき事は何であらうか? 科學者の態度をもつて世相と世界の狀勢を觀、趨勢を觀察し、一見混迷裡に見ゆる中に成長しつゝある建設のきざしを發見して之を育くむ事ではあるまいか? 本誌は極めて小冊子ではあるが、讀者諸氏の小さき世界的眼の一つとして此の役目の微分的量にても果さんと希ふものである。

アメリカの Four-H Club の記事や同く人口動態と耕地面積の關係の話などを取入れたのは矢張り斯うした心持からである。四H クラブは、Head と Heart と Hands と Health をモツトーとせるもので其實際生活に卽してよりよき Community の建設を目指せる點は極めて面白いと思ふ。ボーイ・スカウト邊りと勿論似て居るけれ共もつと生活に卽して居る點が注目せられる。

米國人口動態と耕地の關係の解剖の記事はよき社會學的註釋を得て無味乾燥な數字が豊富な人間的興味を獲得して居る。

目下ナチス獨逸の運轉の實際の衝に當つて居るのは云ふ迄もなく宰相 "Minister-President" 第二次ドイツ四ケ年經濟計畫の全權委員長ヘルマン・ゲーリング其人である事は誰れでも知つて居る所であるが彼れゲーリングとは如何なる人か? ヒツトラーが殆どナチス・ドイツの運轉の全權を與へ、其運命を一手に托した彼れは單なる一凡人ではあり得ないだらう。彼れが如何にして國歩艱難のドイツを導かんとするか? 彼こそは正に世界の誰れもが知らん事を欲する命題であらう。我等オツト・トリシユス氏の明快極りなき記事を得て讀者諸氏に御目にかける事が出來るのを喜びとするものである。

英國ロンドン郊外のクリスタル・パレースが燒けた。ロンドン民衆の生活に於て重大なる役割を演ずる事半世紀以上に及んだ此建物は、ロンドン人の生活から切り離す事の出來ない存在であつた。ありし日の寫眞を入れて其歷史をしのぶ事とした。

米國の太平洋橫斷の航空路、及び計畫中の我對南洋航空路、など東亞の航空界も漸次商業的に又軍事的に注意を惹きつゝある。本號では支那の航空事業一般の記事を御目にかける事とした。

モノクルが威嚴を示すかユーモアを示すか、時と場所に依つて違はうが、英國議會にモノクル鷺が近來頻りに殖えて來たさうである、其モノクル談を一つ。

出版部の本は依然として內外の新聞雜誌上で良い批評を受けて居るが紙面の都合で少しづゝ御目にかける。嚴寒の候皆樣の御健勝を祈る。

[The Burning of the Crystal Palace]

receiver in bankruptcy. 破産管財人。

H.M.S. His Majesty's Ship 英國軍艦。

BOOK REVIEWS

Tanizaki: Ashikari and the Story of Shunkin

Times Literary Supplement, *London Dec. 19, 1936.*

Mr. Tanizaki, generally regarded by his countrymen as the most distinguished exponent of the "art for art's sake" school of novelists and playwrights in Japan, was born in 1886. The two short novels contained in this volume, written in 1932 and 1933, are considered by Japanese critics to be his best work. In both these exquisite little romances the author holds closely to the classical traditions of literary purity and restraint. *In both the romantic love theme is delicately presented, with undertones of poetic feeling and pathos;* but it remains secondary in importance, as tradition prescribes, to the fundamental law of duty and self-sacrifice.

Mr. Tanizaki's work and his philosophy of life have been described as "aestheticism flavoured with hedonism." In these tales the flavour is very subtle and elusive, the lovers' actions and feelings being continually dominated by the discipline of reticence and self-control, imposed by the society to which they belong and the ethical ideas underlying its restraints. The physical manifestations of love have as little place in these romances as its emotional idioms and gestures. Passion and affection find their carefully guarded expression in the display of courtesy and kindness; female loveliness is implied rather than described. *Though wholly Japanese and free from all Western influence, the delicately romantic atmosphere of Mr. Tanizaki's tales and the lovely scenes in which they are set have something of the ethereal quality of a Watteau pastoral.*

Fujihara: The Spirit of Japanese Industry

Oriental Affairs, *Shanghai, Dec. 1936.*

This book is of interest for several reasons. It is written by a prominent Japanese Industrialist—a member of the House of Peers who is President of the Oji Paper Company. It is the outcome of a series of lectures, which the author gave in Japanese some two years ago, and was originally published in Japanese for Japanese readers. The large circulation it attained in Japanese led the publishers to think that an English translation would be of interest to foreign readers. The work of translation has been done by Y. Fukukita, who mentions that the author, after a brilliant record in the service of Mitsui Company was invited, in 1911 to undertake the reorganization of the Oji Paper Company. The latter then had a capital of six million yen, and had not paid dividends for several years. Today it is a prosperous undertaking with a capital of Yen 300,000,000.

The Volume is divided into three Parts, the first of which describes "The Phenomenal Development of Japanese Industry." Many of Japan's modern industries were started much longer ago than is generally realized, though failure attended same of the earlier ventures. A complete cotton mill plant was imported in 1863, and the paper factory which was the nucleus of the one over which Mr. Fujihara now presides, was organized, on official initiative, in 1872, the plant, including bricks and cement being imported in its entirety from England in 1874. The first mechanical silk reeling mill was established in 1872, and a cement factory was started in 1874. The War Department's woollen mill, founded in 1876 is still operating, and a glass factory was opened in the same year. All of these enterprises had Government backing. In 1884 however, a set of Regulations was promulgated providing for the sale of Government factories, and from this step really dates the industrial development of Japan. Many difficulties had to be overcome by the pioneers, as for example, the problem of finance. A recently deceased cotton magnate conceived the idea that it would be best to confine his dealings to one bank, which, he expected, would stand by him in times of adversity. The absence of competition, however produced exactly the opposite effect. His bank charged him higher interest rates in times of prosperity and found innumerable excuses for refusing loans when money was tight. To this experience the author attributes the conservative policy of most Japanese cotton mills, which have restricted their dividends in order to build up ample cash reserves. They are now financially independent of their bankers and agents, and can meet fluctuations in the price of raw cotton without dismay.

Mr. Fujihara combats the view that "a country poor in raw materials cannot expect to be an industrial nation." He quotes statistics to show the enormous quantities of iron ores, iron and steel, coal, raw cotton, rubber, and wool imported by the leading industrial nations, and emphasizes the low freight rates of Japanese steamers as a favourable factor in her industrial development.

The second Part of the volume discusses "Industrial Expansion Due to Racial Traits." As an example of successful Japanese competition the bicycle, which Japan is exporting in increasing numbers to Germany, Holland Britain and the United States, is mentioned. Even the 100 per cent import duty levied by the last-named country does not prevent Japanese cycles from selling in America at about half the cost of those made in the States. Much of Japan's industrial success Mr. Fujihara attributes to the national characteristic of "stressing the spiritual aspect of their work, to which other considerations are subordinate."

The third and final section of the Book deals with "Opportunity for Expansion." Mr. Fujihara does not overlook the serious blows that have been dealt to Japan's export trade by the successive boycotts in China. But it is to the pressure applied by those boycotts that he attributes the expansion of Japanese trade in other directions, notably to India, the Straits Settlements and the Netherlands East Indies.

The idea of the Japan-Manchoukuo-China economic *bloc* does not appeal to the author. "The Japanese cannot afford to stand on the defensive and adopt a negative policy. Japan, whose manifest destiny is to exploit the world market for her industrial products, should assume the offensive. She has no use for an economic *bloc* of narrow scope."

The volume is illustrated with several coloured plates specially painted by Aritsune Hattori, and a number of photographs of buildings, machinery, etc.

The Ashburton Guardian, *New Zealand, Dec. 16, 1936.*

Based on a series of lectures given in 1934 the book was written for his own countrymen, whom he wished to inspire with confidence in the future of Japanese industry. So far from that fact being a detriment, it adds to the value of the presentation, which thus gives a truer insight into the position than might be the case were it intended primarily for foreign readers.

Philippines Herald, *Dec. 2, 1936.*

That a book such as this should come from an industrialist at this time when Japanese manufacturers are invading the four corners of the world is indeed most opportune. It is, thus, both an explanation and an outline of the growth of Japan as a manufacturing nation.

The period of Japanese industrial expansion dates back to the early seventies. In the face of the seemingly insurmountable fact that the Land of the Rising Sun is deficient in natural resources, Japanese ingenuity, industry, patriotism, and resourcefulness, have found full play and now Japan is on the forefront among the industrial nations of the world.

Technical assistance and machineries had first to be imported from America, England, Germany, Italy, and France. Experts had to be secured and the Japanese, being willing and devoted learners, soon excelled their tutors. Today, not only is Japan free from foreign technical help, but is in a position to supply it to whoever wants such help. Thus claims Mr. Ginjiro Fujihara, author of "The Spirit of Japanese Industry.

"In many lines," says Mr. Fujihara, "Japan stands abreast of Europe and America, having already rivalled them in the cotton industry. Manchester's leadership is threatened by the onslaught of cotton yarns and textiles produced in Japan. In the dyestuff business, the German manufacturers, who are alarmed at Japanese expansion, have proposed an agreement of separate spheres of activity. Japan does not have to import chemical fertilizers any longer and is now in a position to export some. In addition to technical superiority, Japan has the advantage of producing everything at extremely low cost."

The reader is likely to inquire how all these have come about. Mr. Fujihara supplies the answer:

"Now what has made possible the in-

dustrial development of Japan within 50 to 70 years? Research has been conducted to discover the causes, and the question is discussed in periodicals the world over. In fact, economists and critics are puzzled over the phenomenal progress of Japanese industry. To me, however, the most important cause is the spiritual element. I mean the mental discipline cultivated by the Japanese for centuries, and the technical superiority largely due thereto. I would also point out the diligence of our people and the whole-hearted devotion to their work. The simpler mode of living is another advantage for the Japanese, while the efficient way of organizing their work is an interesting factor."

The author also answers charges of dumping and the allegations that Japan is able to beat other countries in the world's markets at the price of virtual slavery for her workers. He says that the Japanese workingman gets low wages, but his cost of living, which is on a high plane, is low compared to what laborers get in other countries.

He sees a splendid future for Japanese goods in the world's markets. He advocates aggressive salesmanship thus: "Let us strike while the iron is hot, for the present situation is so favorable, Japan's foreign trade may take an untoward turn any time. China, British India, and the Dutch East Indies are markets for Japanese goods. The South Sea Region and other countries of Asia may be regarded as our own sphere of trading activities. It is my ardent desire to make Japan a foremost power of the world in the true sense."

Mr. Fujihara is a member of the House of Peers and president of the Oji Paper Company, one of the largest, concerns of its kind in the world. Truly, his book is an index to Japan's industrial progress.—V.L.F.

The Nippu Jiji, *Oct. 24, 1936.*

Lately we have seen brilliant instances of publication of foreign language books in Japan in the matter of type, paper and binding. One of these examples is an English translation of "The Spirit of Japanese Industry," by Ginjiro Fujihara, the Japanese paper king, a copy of which I received from the author by the last mail. The translation was done by Yasunosuke Fukukita, a member of the executive staff of Mr. Fujihara's Oji Paper Company and one of the prominent English scholars in Japan and consequently the book is extra good.

The original "The Spirit of Japanese Industry" is one of the books which I admired most this year. It tells of how modern Japanese industry has progressed and the spiritual background of the progress has many fiction-like episodes. It wipes out the various misunderstandings and distorted views that Europeans and Americans have held. In these respects the book makes a grand splurge for Japan.

The book's outward appearance and the beautiful Japanese paintings and photographs and convenient index made especially for the English translation, as well as its thorough and wonderful contents should be sufficient to attract book lovers.

芬蘭で上演申込

一月十日「都新聞」より

唐人お吉を主人公とする山本有三氏作「女人哀詞」は水谷八重子一座や花柳章太郎一派などで度々脚光を浴び近くは昨秋十月末にも山本安英らの新築地劇團の手で上演を見たが、この芝居が遙か海の彼方で華々しく上演する計畫が樹てられ、外務省を通じて原作者山本有三氏に上演許可を求めて來た、この國と言ふのがハリス提督の國アメリカかと思ふとさうではなくて何とスポー王國フインランドであるから一段と妙である。

「女人哀詞」は他の山本氏の名作戯曲「坂崎出羽の守」「生命の冠」と共に山口高商講師ヴレン・ショー氏によつて英譯され先年北星堂から「スリー・プレイズ」と題して出版されたが、一昨年の夏之を讀んだフインランド一流の閨秀作家ハーガー・オルソン女史が頗る感服し同國のスベンスカ新聞に「詩と藝術美に富み而も目のあたり見るが如きリアリズムの眞髓を行く名作」と銘打つて批評紹介した、これが動機となつて芬蘭では日本文學に對する興味が勃然として起ると共に「女人哀詞」上演の機運が高まり、本紙其他に掲載された八重子や安英の扮裝姿などに就いて研究した結果、いよいよ今春三月頃を期してオルソン女史の飜譯演出の下に首都ヘルシンキ市大劇場で同國の名優連を總動員して上演する事に話がきまり、我國に援助方を申出たので、我芬蘭駐剳市河代理公使から「山本氏の上演許可と演出上の參考資料を至急送つて欲しい」と外務省に通牒して來た。

文化事業部では早速山本有三氏に照會を發する一方國際文化振興會と協力して「女人哀詞」劇の舞臺寫眞其の他を送り出すことゝなつた。

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ROBERT BRIDGES'S

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Cloth. To be published in March.

About the British Isles

Edited, with Introduction and Notes by G. CAIGER, F. R. G. S.

Illustrated with 17 *photos.* *To be published in Feb.*

From the experience gained in Radio Talks, these talks have been edited with a view to making them more interesting to readers. Individually, they are shorter than those in the previous volume. In order that readers should not be held up by avoidable difficulties a number of names of places have been omitted: also references to historical events which needed a great deal of explanation. At the same time the notes are more numerous and more detailed. A map has been included.

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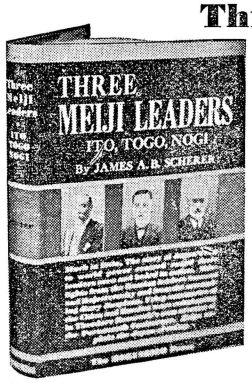

明治維新以來の日本歷史は或意味に於て伊藤公、乃木大將、東鄕元帥の三人を通じて最もよく把握出來ると云ふのが著者の意見である。本書は此三偉人の傳記であると同時に其參與した事件の繪卷物であり、新鮮な材料を廣く內外に求めた特種の明治史である。

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In Ankora:	Mustapha Kemal.	*Anonymous*
In Rome:	Benito Mussolini.	*Anonymous*
In Berlin:	Adolf Hitler.	*Fitz-Gerald*
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	Edward Benes.	,,

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V. The Conditions of Existence as affecting the Perpetuation of Living Beings.
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◀本書の目標▶

1. 中等諸學校に於ける現行英作文及英文法の『總括的檢討』と『仕上げ工作』
2. 高等諸學校の『的確なる受驗準備』

◀本書の內容と其特徵▶

1. 難に走らず易に偏せず、總て綴文上緊要なる文法上の知識を基調とし、之に應ずる實際的類例を豐富に蒐集排列したること。
2. 最近の入試問題を嚴選し、文法解說に密接の聯關あるものを採り、範文及び練習題の根幹としたること。
3. 一般受驗者が陷り易き綴文上の過誤を指摘せんが爲め、特に ***PRACTICAL HINTS*** の項を設け、之を本文の隨所に挿入し、最も適切且つ懇篤なる實地英作文の指導教科書たるに遺憾なきを期したること。

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學習院教授 稻葉三郎先生新著

昭和10年8月2日 中學校外國語科 文部省檢定濟

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1. 本論文選集は主として中等諸學校**上級用及び補習科用**として編纂したもので**受驗用實力養成の敎科書**として極めて好適なものであります。
2. 內容は既に定評ある堅實穩健な思想物を選び行文の平易明確なものを採り**公民道德一般道德及び科學**に關する材料を根幹とし、これに隨筆物を加味し的確な讀書力の涵養を主眼とし、且つ文科理科兩方面の志望者の要求に對して**遺憾なき事を期**して居ります。
3. 各章の終りには「プログレステスツ」の項を設け本文中の重要なる熟語慣用句等の應用として、各高等學校專門學校の**最近入試問題**を課し實地の練習に備へてあります。又卷末「カレント・トピツクス」の項には**時事問題**五十題を掲げ最近入試問題の動向を理解する一助として置きました。
4. 本書は大體**一週二時間宛**を以て一年間に**讀了**するのを目標としてありますがその材料の取捨選擇其他一般本書の取扱方は一つに敎授者各位の賢明なる裁斷に委する次第であります。
5. 本文中特に難解の箇所及び固有名詞には卷末に**簡單な註解**を加へ、敎授上又學習上の便に資しました。

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本書二卷は中學校第三第四學年に於いて、**英文法と英作文とを併せ敎授する目的を以て編纂**したものであります。

從來の英文法敎科書は品詞論が大部分を占め、構文論は幾分閑却されて居るかの樣に見受けられます。本書は少しく趣を異にし構文論に重きを置き、そして**第一卷**なれば專ら Simple Sentence の練習に充て、**第二卷**に於いて Complex Sentence, Compound Sentence を研究するといふ方針により品詞論もそれに適當する樣兩卷に按排してあります。

卽ちまづ第一卷前半に於いて Simple Sentence の五種の形式を例示し、ついで動詞の活用を敎へ、猶 Tense の大略、定否文疑問文に於ける Word Order 等を說き、又各種疑問詞に論及して作文練習の根底を固め後半に於いて人稱代名詞、名詞、形容詞、冠詞、副詞の用法を述べてあります。

第二卷に入つて Complex Sentence, Compound Sentence の要素たる各種の Clause を說きその構成に必要な接續詞、關係代名詞、關係形容詞、關係副詞を論じ、ついで Tense, Mood, Sequence of Tense を詳說し、猶 Infinitive, Gerund, Participle に及び最後に前置詞の用法を附加へたものであります。

東京　北星堂發行　神田

(第三種郵便物認可) (昭和七年七月九日) 昭和十二年一月廿五日印刷 (毎月一日) 昭和十二年二月一日發行 (發行) 發行兼印刷人 中土義敬 印刷所 北星堂印刷所 發行所 東京市神田區錦町三ノ十二 振替 東京一六〇二四番 北星堂 (電話神田四一四二九番) 一部三錢 一ヶ年送料五厘四十錢